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TEACHING ENGLISH

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EDITORIAL

THERE ARE TWO objections which are usually made after a demonstration of active methods of teaching, or when teachers are advised to use the situation of the class-room and teach all new material through speech. The first is that most teachers cannot be expected to teach all day in so strenuous a manner as oral methods require, they are physically not capable of the effort and the strain. The second objection is that, in large classes—classes of, say, 45 or 50 pupils—the average pupil, and even more the backward pupil, does not get enough opportunity to speak for any of the speech patterns to become instinctive. The usual answer to the first objection is that only the introduction of new material, and the repetition of it to the point of fluency, need be primarily through speech, there is still plenty of reading and writing to be done, dictation to be given and pattern sentences have to be written on the blackboard and copied into note-books. None of this work is physically very exhausting for the teacher, and he should arrange his work so that active lessons alternate with quiet ones. The answer to the second objection is that a pupil needs to hear a great deal more than he needs to speak, attentive listening builds up the background of language patterns and thought habits that the speaker needs to have at his disposal before he can be expected to speak fluently, and besides that, judicious use of chorus work can increase opportunities for speaking of all pupils, and especially help the backward to imitate the more fluent.

Not all teachers are convinced by these answers, valid though they are. Many more would be more easily convinced if they were shown how to increase the possibilities for oral practice—actual use of the language—and mutual help which dividing the class into groups or pairs makes possible. Teachers need not drive themselves to the point of exhaustion in drilling their classes in language patterns until their mastery is fluent and instinctive. If they teach a new form until the brighter 10 or 12 boys are beginning to be able to use it confidently, they can split up the class into groups and the rest of the work of practising it can be done by the pupils themselves, the teacher merely moving from group to group and helping them when they are held up. Or he can concentrate for five or ten minutes on one group and let the other groups do revision work of different kinds—oral or written

—until he is ready to attend to them. Far more written compositions and composition exercises can be done and corrected by the teacher if groups of five or six pupils are set to produce one common composition or set of sentences for each group, each member of the group writing it out in full, of course ; because, instead of 50 compositions the teacher has only ten to correct.

This number of *Teaching English* is centred round the idea of group work in language learning, because we believe that in carefully planned group activity lies the answer to the despair of the teacher at the physical demands that seem to be made on him by oral, activity methods, and also to the frustration of the pupil lost in a mass of 45 or 50 pupils all waiting for opportunities of expression and experience in the use of language that far too seldom come.

Since the publication of the last number of *Teaching English,* the Report on the UNESCO Seminar on the Teaching of Modern Languages, held at Nuwara Eliya in Ceylon, in 1953, has come to hand. The most striking fact revealed by the report is the unanimity among experienced teachers and trainers of teachers, whose experience has been gained quite independently, in dealing with different languages in all parts of the world and in a wide variety of circumstances, that languages are most economically and effectively taught through speech, and by careful avoidance of any reference to the mother tongue of the learner until fluency and independence has been built up in the new language. The report also directs the attention of teachers of language to the part which the study of foreign languages can play in developing international understanding and training the pupil in tolerance and forebearance towards those that differ from him in race, language and background.

OBITUARY

We are publishing in this number of *Teaching English* an article which we requested from Professor Gatenby soon after his tour of India last winter. Just as the number was being made up we received the sad news that he had died suddenly in England on November 24th. His friends had for a long time thought he was taxing himself too severely, but he would smile at our fears and say that he had not felt fitter for years. We have the consolation of knowing that he was active until the end of his life in what was a life-work and a hobby, the relieving of children from the pressure and strain of learning foreign languages by ineffective and pedantic methods.

Prof. E. V. Gatenby, C.B.E., M.A., was born on 2 July 1892, and was one of that generation that was involved in the First World War. He took his B.A. degree at London University in 1920 with First Class Honours, and was awarded in addition an Inglis Studentship, a Jelf Medal and an Early English Text Society Prize.

He began his teaching career in the English Classes of the Regent Street Polytechnic, London, from 1921-22. In 1923 he left for Japan, where he spent the next nineteen years of his life teaching English in schools, colleges and training establishments. He was associated with Dr. H. E. Palmer and A. S. Hornby in the work of the Institute for Research in English Teaching. He became Professor of English at the Imperial University, Sendai, in 1941. When Japan entered the war he was interned and later repatriated to England.

In 1943 he went to Turkey as Linguistic Adviser to the British Council in Turkey. A year later he was given charge of the English Department of the Gazi Training Institute in Ankara and a year later became also a professor in the University. In 1946 he was elected to the Chair of English at Ankara University. During his time in Ankara he entirely reformed the training of teachers of English and raised the standard of English studies very considerably. After reaching the retiring age of 60 in 1952, he was asked to remain at his post, but his health was beginning to give cause for anxiety and he eventually left Ankara in July 1954. He then joined the publishing firm of Longmans as an adviser on language text-books, and it was in this capacity that he visited India last December, January and February. This was not his first contact with India, as he had been brought to India in 1950 by the British Council to preside over a conference at Mahableshwar on "The Future of English in India" ; and he had kept in touch with many of the educationalists that he learnt to know there. He was awarded the C.B.E. in the summer of 1955.

The most memorable of his qualities were his patience and kindness. He would never discourage a student teacher, nor even an experienced teacher by any signs of impatience or scorn ; on the other hand, his scorn could be extreme for pedantry and obscurantism or unjustified pretension in people who were concerned with the training of teachers or the preparation of text-books. He cared for children and teachers equally, and could never stand by and see them misused, either out of indifference, or in the name of some pet theory that had not been tested or worked out satisfactorily. Above all he would not tolerate any falsifying of the language in the supposed interests of simplicity.

F. L. B.

A FEW IMPRESSIONS

By E. V. Gatenby

During the last "cold" season it was my privilege to visit India and to see a good deal of the work being done by teachers of English in schools of many types in various parts of the country. Almost all that I saw could be paralleled in the schools of the Middle East and Europe, and I was confirmed in my opinion that the outstanding problems of language learning and teaching are to be found in all areas, no one country having more than a small number of special difficulties of its own to overcome.

Thus in India there are some superlatively good teachers, a large number of average ability, and some—I cannot estimate how many—whose qualifications for their task are not so high as they ought to be; there are good, medium, and poor text-books; there are overcrowded classrooms and lamentably poor equipment ; there are those teachers who cling to dead-language methods almost alongside those who are needlessly energetic or acrobatic in their application of direct method ; and there are education authorities giving encouragement and wise guidance to be contrasted with others which discourage and mislead. As in other countries, teaching, the most important profession, receives the poorest material reward.

It was clear, again, that the teacher is the key to the whole problem of how to secure good results in foreign language instruction. When properly trained, or having trained himself by experience, he knows how to make work productive in even the largest classes ; refusing to be bound to a text-book, he can circumvent the handicaps of the poorer types and derive the maximum benefit for his class from the better; he knows how to adjust his methods to the age and capacity of his pupils; he cheerfully makes, with the help of the class, all the equipment he needs ; and like Nelson turning his blind eye to a signal he goes ahead with his "battle" and demonstrates to officialdom what successful practice is. All this is as true of teachers in, say, Turkey or Spain as it is of teachers in India.

But there were a few points where I noticed not so much a difference of principle as of emphasis or degree in application of remedies. Thus we are all agreed that the better the text-book, the easier it is for the average teacher to get the best results with

a class. But to argue from this that the poor teacher must be provided with a low-level text-book to fit his capacity or his intelligence is a false assumption. We have no right to penalize the pupil in our efforts to smooth the path for the less competent teacher. Granted that the latter must be given every possible help, and that he may learn while he teaches, but the proper place for such help is the teacher's hand-book, not the pupils' reader. More than once I heard complaints that certain words and structures to be found in most first-year text-books were puzzling to the teacher and should therefore be postponed until a later stage when, presumably, the teacher had made himself more efficient. This would hardly be in accordance with the generally accepted rule that the children's interests must come first.

Another idea worthy of note, and perhaps of commendation, is coming to the fore in India, namely, that what is needed for international communication is a form of English with the minimum of English background. It has been pointed out elsewhere, quite rightly, that the universally applicable text-book such as we have had in the past, based on an English environment and deliberately leading up to a study of English literature, is no longer the best suited for schools or adult classes in any country. A Yugoslav student, for example, needs English for utilitarian rather than cultural purposes; he wishes to understand, and make himself understood by, other Europeans. Consequently, lessons based on life in an English village, or the poetry of Matthew Arnold, are less useful than the conversation of travel or the vocabulary of modern ideas. Latterly books have been prepared with regional backgrounds, the theory being that the second language can be more easily learnt if it is used as a substitute for the mother tongue. The pupils retain their familiar scenes, including their activities, and are thus able to apply the new modes of expression to the old concepts. Now, it is realized, we should go a step further. English based entirely on daily life in India is not sufficient for an easy interchange of ideas with (to take an example) Chinese speakers who have probably learnt English from books specially designed for China. English has established itself as an international language, used in one variety or another by at least half the literate population of the world. The modern requirement is a neutral form of English, a language as free from national bias as Esperanto. What the implications of this are has still to be worked out, but it was interesting to find the idea being mooted in India. Starting with neutral English and adapting it, if necessary, to a particular region is a very different process from starting with the English of Oxford and then removing its cultural flavour to fit it for *en tout cas* use.

A parallel here is neutral, accentless French such as is spoken in countries where the educated classes use it as their second language. It is generally more intelligible than the French of Paris to those whose mother tongue is not French. It is grammatically correct, but it has lost those particular features which make "French of the centre" so difficult for the foreigner to acquire. It is, in fact, international French, a levelling out of the language into a flatter form which serves for all practical purposes. A similar form of English probably exists and deserves recognition.

A question often asked of me was : "What do you think about the future of English in India?" So much has been written in answer to this, and so sensibly, that there is nothing original left for me to say ; but it seems clear that, apart from any particularly local reasons for continuing the study of English, India will find it necessary, like other countries, to have English as an international medium—not simply, as so many maintain, for contact with the West, but for contact with the whole world.

My last observation shall be this: There are many varieties of English—Canadian, Welsh, Scotch, Australian, Irish, American, etc.—and any mutually intelligible form of educated English is universally acceptable. Indian English exists. It is as worthy of acceptance as any other brand of English, and the time has come for its establishment as a Regional Standard. Professor Fries has indicated by his phonetic system what the sounds and speech habits of educated Middle West American English in general use are, and similar work to discover what the "received" standard is in India would be the first step to furnish Indian English with the authority it needs. Setting up such a regional standard would save a good deal of time in the teaching and learning of the language.

GROUP WORK IN ENGLISH

By Dr. J. Forrester

It has often been said that the golden rule in teaching English composition is "Prevent mistakes". Mistakes can be prevented only by providing plenty of directed practice in correct forms of expression before the pupil is left free to say what he wants in his own words. The teacher needs constantly to remind himself that pupils cannot *think out* correct expressions, but can only produce them from the storehouse of their memory, suitably adapted to the situation of the moment. If a pupil does not know the correct combination of tenses in a conditional sentence or the correct order of words and the right change of tense in an indirect

question no amount of intelligent thinking will lead him to the right form of expression. F. G. French in his book *Common Errors in English* has shown how a number of mistakes in English composition are a result of pupils trying to think out the correct expression. Correct structures are not learnt, moreover, after one hearing only. They need to be heard many times and also used many times before they become a permanent possession available for use when needed. For this, much practice and drill is needed.

One of the most difficult problems that faces the teacher of English is that of providing for adequate individual practice in expression in a large class. Wide differences in ability in the same class make this problem even more acute, for the teacher knows very well that his more backward pupils need a great deal of individual attention and opportunity to practise under supervision, but cannot afford to give the time to them. It is in a situation of this kind, with which every teacher is familiar, that group work may help.

The writer has used group work successfully with older pupils working through A. S. Hornby's *Composition Exercises in Elementary English.*

The class was divided into seven groups with five pupils in each, the bright and backward pupils being distributed more or less equally among the groups. The point to be practised—say conditional sentences—was then explained and demonstrated to the class as a whole, using examples from the pupils' own experience, as well as from the book. The brighter pupils were soon responding correctly to such questions as "If your father were a doctor what would he do?" Then the first few sentences of the exercise were done with the class until it was clear that the better pupils understand what was expected. Then the sentences of the whole exercise were shared out between the groups, each group being given about four sentences to do. There were blackboards all round the classroom so each group was told to write up its sentences on a portion of the board. It is usually best to arrange for one of the more backward pupils to do the writing. He is then obliged to be an active participant and incidentally gets help with spelling from other members of the group. When the sentences are written up on the board the teacher can spot a mistake at once and see that it is put right. If there is not blackboard space available, the sentences can be written in a rough notebook, still by the most backward in the group, and the teacher can move quickly from group to group to supervise. As the teacher has to look at eight or nine notebooks instead of 40 or 45 he is able to see the work of every group, so no mistakes are uncorrected.

It usually took about ten minutes to do an exercise in this way. After all mistakes had been corrected the pupils read through the whole exercise from the boards, a different pupil being called upon to read each sentence. Chorus reading by groups could be used here if desired. The blackboards were cleaned and a few of the sentences repeated orally.

One of the striking things about this experiment was the popularity of this method. Pupils never seemed to grow tired of doing exercises together in this way. Children learn a great deal from each other, and even if they do nothing but write up what is dictated to them, the slower pupils hear those extra repetitions which they need and which the teacher has never the time to give. The bright pupil who would be bored if he had to listen to the teacher repeating the structure for the sake of the slower pupils has no objection to repeating it several times himself to the same slow classmate. It is important, however, that the teacher's preliminary demonstration and practice should be adequate. If it is not, and if the groups make a number of mistakes this method is providing practice in mistakes and not in correct expression and does more harm than good, though not any more harm than doing an exercise individually without proper preparation. If the teacher notices that several mistakes are being made in the different groups he should stop the group work and repeat his own demonstration. An example will help. The writer was teaching parallel classes by this method. Finding that the slower of the two classes was able to do a whole exercise with hardly a mistake after a demonstration, she thought that she could very well cut short the time spent on demonstration with the brighter class. The result was disastrous. In the end far more time was spent on the brighter class than on the slower before it was able to do the exercise as well.

The fear is often expressed that if exercises are done in this way the slower pupils will leave all the work to the brighter pupils. In practice, however, because the slower pupils are part of a small group and especially if they are chosen to be the scribes of their group, they learn more than they do by listening to an exercise done in the usual way. A number of variations can of course be introduced into the scheme described. If the teacher wants to test how much has been mastered by individuals he can ask any pupil to do any sentence from the exercise. He can give a homework in which pupils are asked to write out five sentences which they did not do in their group.

Once the groups have to work together they can be used in various ways. Practice in asking questions can be given by setting the groups to make up questions on specific portions of their

reader to ask the other groups. It is understood that the teacher will name the pupil who is to ask the question, and that it will not always be the group leader who does so. When this is understood the brighter pupils in the group will take the trouble to see that the slower ones know how to frame questions correctly.

Answers to questions, recapitulations of stories, accounts of a visit, descriptions or any other kind of composition can be written as a piece of group activity, after, of course, the usual oral preparation conducted by the teacher. Letter writing can become very interesting when groups write letters to one another, an invitation to an imaginary party, the acceptance or refusal written in reply, a letter for a birthday, and a thank-you letter in reply. Sometimes this group work will be repeated individually as homework, but not always. The great advantage of this work is that as there are only a few versions being actually written in the classroom, one for each group, the teacher is able to correct all of these during the class period. There will, therefore, be far fewer mistakes in individual compositions and the teacher's burden of corrections will be lightened.

Group work can be used for practice in reading aloud. Once the teacher is satisfied that the group leaders can read a certain passage correctly, he can divide the class into groups and allow reading to go on simultaneously in all groups either moving from group to group or else taking the poorest readers for special coaching himself. Spelling can be learnt, poetry heard, substitution tables practised and learnt, all in groups. Some mistakes may go undetected, but not so many as when the teacher is struggling with 40 or 50 pupils single handed. He is there able to detect and correct only the mistakes which he hears made by the comparatively few pupils who speak individually in the class. He has no means of knowing the half-learnt expressions, the misunderstood forms which are in the minds of the pupils until he sees them wrongly written down, but, when they work together in a group, many of these can be corrected by the pupils' companions and the teacher's work considerably lightened.

THE A B C

BY J. G. BRUTON

WHILE CONDUCTING Refresher Courses in the teaching of English in India I find that no suggestion of mine arouses more opposition than the one that teachers should not in the early stages teach pupils the English A B C. If in reply to storms of protest I ask "Why do you teach the A B C", the answers usually are :

(a) That it is a means of teaching correct spelling.
(b) That it enables the teacher to test pupils' ability to spell.
(c) That such teaching is traditional.

We can, of course, dismiss the last answer as irrelevant, and point out that the other two indicate some lack of thought. Before considering these, however, it would be well to note that in teaching children to write and read English two separate problems are involved, one of which has something to do with English teaching, while the other, I submit, has not. The problem of teaching children to write the 26 letters of the English alphabet is simply that of teaching a purely manual skill, which is obviously not an English teaching problem. The other problem, that of teaching children the phonetic values attributed to the symbols when found in combinations is, however, the business of the English teacher.

It seems to me that the problem of teaching the purely manual skill should properly be left to persons expert in imparting such skills—teachers of art. A reasonable solution would be to ask such a teacher to begin teaching children to write the English alphabet some time before they begin to study English, so that when they do in fact begin, the English teacher is not obliged to spend valuable time in teaching something which is not truly his concern. While the children are learning to form the English letters, there is no necessity, it seems to me, to teach them that a particular shape is called "ei" or "em": it should be enough to tell them simply that, just as their own language possesses written symbols, so does English, and that when they begin to study English their teacher will tell them how these symbols are used and what phonetic values they convey.

It is a lamentable fact that even English children have considerable difficulty in learning to write and read English correctly, for the simple reason that our system of orthography is hopelessly

defective, since our alphabet possesses an insufficient number of symbols to cover the full range of English sounds. I think it is almost safe to say that none of us ever finishes learning to spell, and I am sure that most of us would be uncertain of the spelling of a word which we heard pronounced the first time and had never seen written. The problem as far as children are concerned is, of course, vastly simpler in many other languages that do not possess these manifest disadvantages of English; a Spanish child can be taught to read and write reasonably effectively in about 6 months because of the phonetic nature of the Spanish system of orthography and I imagine that much the same is true of the majority of Indian languages also. It would be very desirable to reform English spelling and various attempts have been made at different times to carry out such a reform, but none of them has so far succeeded, and it seems unlikely that we can anticipate any major modification of our system in the immediate future. The core of the difficulty is obviously the different values that are accorded to the various symbols in the many combinations in which they appear ; the letter A can be pronounced in a multitude of different ways, as can all the other English vowels and a large number of dipthongs. This is the major cause of difficulty to an English child, and the difficulty is obviously not lessened by teaching him that the symbol A is called "ei", or that the letter H is called "eich". If he is taught by this method then he can be excused for believing that the word "mat" is pronounced "meit", or as one Indian in the case of child I know of, for believing that the word "hat" was in fact pronounced "chat"—why not, if the first letter is described as "ei*ch*".

The ability to spell English words correctly depends entirely upon the quality of visual memory of the person concerned and the strength of that visual memory of individual words in English. It is for this reason that the majority of English people, when they feel doubt about the spelling of an English word, write down two or three versions and decide which of them is right by simply looking at them. What we mean when we say that a person can spell correctly is simply that he can reproduce a visual image of the word correctly in written form, and this has obviously nothing to do at all with the ability to name the various elements of which the word is composed. If we wish to teach children to spell English words correctly, the only safe method of achieving this is to provide them with ample opportunity for seeing words repeated over and over again in a written or a printed form, since only in this way can we build up correct images in their minds of the words we wish them to learn. This can be achieved by frequent use of the blackboard, by making use of flash cards and

by making the child read text-books in which the words are frequently repeated. Excellent books of this particular kind which are very popular in England are the Beacon Readers (Ginn & Co.) and the Happy Venture Readers (Oliver & Boyd). It is for these reasons that I believe that no useful purpose is served by teaching children in the early stages to name the letters of the English alphabet, but this does not mean that at a later stage it would not be useful and necessary to teach children to do this, since if they are to make use of that valuable instrument, the dictionary, they will need to know the order in which the letters of the alphabet occur, and since there is a long established convention in this matter which they must be familiar with.

As I have said before, many teachers defend the teaching of the alphabet on the grounds that it enables a teacher to test a child's ability to spell English words correctly. If we wish to test this ability, there are other means of doing it. We can ask children to write words down in their notebooks after we have repeated them or we can invite individual children in the class to come to the front and write the words in question on the blackboard. If there are certain words which are commonly misspelt, and which we know children have difficulty with, then the remedy lies in periodic spelling tests in which these difficult words occur. If these mistakes persist, then the best remedy is still the old-fashioned one of asking children to write the word out a given number of times, thus reinforcing a correct visual image.

There are many questions involved in the teaching of English for which there are traditionally established practices that a great number of teachers accept without question, but if we are to be efficient, it surely behoves us to ask ourselves constantly not only what it is that we intend to teach but also why we intend to teach it. If teachers will do this with regard to teaching of the alphabet, I am sure that they will see that traditional practice has not much to recommend it.

I shall hope to deal in a later article with other aspects of the problem of teaching children to read in the early stages of their study of English.

PARTICIPATIVE TEACHING

By Dr. M. Thangavelu, M.D.

Professor of Pathology, Medical College, Trivandrum

The scope of participative teaching in medical education has been the subject of much talk and little practice in undergraduate teaching though this is practiced in some progressive institutions in England and America. This method is made use of in the Post-graduate Medical School at Hammersmith and in some medical centres in America. The foreign students who go to these places just for a qualifying degree do not usually get the benefit of this method of teaching. Probable reasons for their missing this mode of teaching are the limited time in which these students are anxious to get the qualifying degree and their trying to get back home as early as possible ; and also their not fitting into the departmental or institutional discipline sufficiently long to be trusted with such a method which involves a great deal of personal effort on the part of the teacher as well as the taught.

Having visited a number of centres for teaching in the West I thought of introducing participative teaching in my department. I was a victim of didactic teaching and I do not claim to be a good teacher. (Even good teachers become monotonous to a regular audience !) A solution had to be found to save the young and intelligent students from the harangue in educational institutions. What prompted me to undertake this experiment was want of qualified teachers. The new institution where I had to organise the department of Pathology was inadequately staffed. Excepting for heads of departments the rest were graduates fresh from colleges ; some of them took to teaching because they had no option. Some of them had joined the department just to mark time and gain seniority in State Medical Service, and others had taken to this job for want of some employment. Surely, nobody would envy such a team entrusted with the teaching of students who are being prepared as custodians of the health of citizens. I was fortunate to have a few young enthusiasts among the staff who were prepared to work and help day and night in conducting this experiment in teaching.

I wondered whether the students could be made to teach themselves by proper guidance. Our students are selected from the University and they had successfully completed two years, and some

of them four years, of study. They had the power of understanding the problems and if they could be given a lead they could settle down sincerely to solve any problem. Some of them were too shy and they required a little persuasion to overcome their shyness. Often they were willing to come forward and talk, but they were afraid that others might laugh at them. They had to be told that their friends also had such feelings and such shortcomings but they were more courageous to come forward and talk. A little coaxing, some praise and occasional friendly admonishment won them over to take interest in their job and each tried to excel the other in performance.

After a few months of preliminary lectures dealing with fundamentals, the class is initiated into group teaching. During these introductory lectures the students are shown how to demonstrate the lectures. They are not told about the techniques but they watch the techniques employed in teaching. A few remarks regarding handling of materials are made, but care is taken not to burden them with details. Usually demonstration specimens are chosen with the object of rousing their curiosity. No lecture lasts more than 40 minutes, the following 15 minutes are spent in demonstration to groups and students invited to put questions and to discuss problems. This 15 minutes' period I consider as a very useful time to break the barriers of inhibition and they all think and freely express. Slowly this demonstration is transferred to the students and by turn every one of them demonstrates the specimen at the end of a lecture. They are told what specimens they are to demonstrate and where they can get the information about the specimens. Rarely does a student come and report that he was not able to get at the source of information. On one or two occasions we had to mildly reprimand them for such excuses but I have had no such occasion for a long time now.

When this phase is over, the students are put on to group teaching and demonstrations. They are divided into groups of four, the first four on the rolls followed by the next four and so on. They have no option regarding the members of the group and this has been found to be very good for the development of a co-operative spirit. They are told about the subject in advance and, if they require, the staff may indicate the lines along which the discussion should be conducted. They are given the references and also helped with constructive criticism in the preparation of drawing or grouping of materials for demonstration. The artistically inclined amongst them help the rest in drawing the diagrams and the oratorically talented is chosen by them for leading the discussion. Surely they know their talents ! On 'D-day' the 'four' are usually active putting up the demonstrations and the discussion

is conducted in a very cordial atmosphere. The first person introduces the subject with a historical survey on the development of the knowledge in the particular topic under discussion, the second gives a detailed survey, the third demonstrates relevant material and the fourth concludes the discussion relating the demonstration to the preceding discussion. At the end of each talk the student audience gets a chance to clear their doubts. When this experimental teaching was begun the question time was at the end, but it was found that the audience was not following the discussion, but when question times were interposed between talks, it was gratifying to note that the students were more alert to the talks and subsequent discussions. During these discussions the staff members are present but their contribution is limited, and that too only when the discussion is going along wrong lines or when controversial and theoretical aspects loom large in discussion. Every speaker is encouraged to make use of as many visual aids as possible—charts, diagrams, etc. The staff enliven the programme with short films, epidascopic and other audiovisual appliances. These discussions last over a period of two hours and the students leave the hall not fatigued and sleepy but bright and cheerful at the end of the group study.

The next phase requires a little more intensive work. Discussion is based on any subject or problem which they come across in their hospital work—in the wards of the hospital or in the post-mortem room. The group assists the staff in actual conduct of laboratory study. The information collected is presented in the form of a review of the subject with particular reference to the special problem. The four members do not get more than a week for the preparation, but having had the previous training, they are quick in preparing the topic and also in putting up a good demonstration. Of late they are being trained in preparing notes of the discussion and these are found to contain such facts and information that students and the staff consult these papers. This is an indirect way of training them in the art of preparing papers for more important theses preparation later on.

I am greatly encouraged by the result I obtained. The students have developed self-confidence—they appear for the examination without any diffidence. They can think about a problem on constructive lines, they learn to tolerate criticisms and they are willing to improve by criticisms ! The student audience also comes prepared for a critical discussion. When we began we found that either the students kept mum all through the discussion or they indulged in flippant remarks. By kind persuasion and repeated appeals the tone of the discussion has improved remarkably. It is really astonishing to find how much of teaching

talent is present in the taught and it is unfortunate that we teachers do not exploit this rich source. We may work very hard and prepare our lectures and if the soil is not receptive we are often disappointed. The object of education is achieved if we could get the students in a receptive frame of mind and when once this is done they will look after the rest. The responsibility of the teacher does not rest with the vociferous delivery of voluminous facts. He should respect learning and must set an example to the students. He must prove to them that he is ever learning and that as students they should build up an edifice of knowledge by correct observation, collection of information, arrangement of facts, discussion open to criticism and last but not least by documentation.

ENGLISH CLASSICS AND THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

By Miss B. Hensman, M.A., Ph.D.

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At the two British Council Refresher Courses for teachers of English which I attended in South India this year one question cropped up several times in different guises: "What is Standard English ?"

This is not a question which permits of a one-sentence answer. English has different pronunciations and usages at different periods and under different social and geographical circumstances. Even American English has its variations. In *The Grapes of Wrath* the migrant family is travelling westward to California and meets another group of migrants. "I knowed," says Sairy, "You wasn't Oklahomy folks. You talk queer kinda—that ain't no blame, you understan'."

"Ever'body says words different," said Ivy—"Arkansas folk says 'em different, and Oklahomy folks says 'em different. And we seen a lady from Massachussetts, an' she said 'em differentest of all. Couldn' hardly make out what she was sayin?"

There is, it is true, a "Standard English" which is the accepted pronunciation and usage in educated circles in England ; a form of English which is "standard" because it is accepted by the majority of persons who use the language with reasonable care and effectiveness. But that does not mean that there is a fixed English pronunciation which is the "standard" for all time and all circumstances. The Standard English of today will certainly be superseded by a different standard fifty or a hundred years hence, just because English is a living language and "living" and

"life" are present only when there is growth and development and change.

The teacher who teaches English as a means of communicating modern ideas and experiences and at the same time is responsible for teaching "set-books", Shakespeare, Goldsmith, Johnson, or even Dickens, soon becomes aware of the fact that the English language has changed in the course of years. Neither the grammar book nor the pocket dictionary is sufficient to explain the difficulties of the text. And the earlier the text the more the difficulties. And yet, when written, the text-book was standard English.

This problem of the discrepancy between the grammar book and actual usage is no new one. One reputable mid-eighteenth century grammarian undertook to put the English language of his day under the restraints and discipline of grammatical rules. He wrote : "Considering the many grammatical improprieties to be found in our best writers such as Swift, Addison, Pope, etc., a systematical English syntax is not beneath the notice of the learned themselves." In other words, he rejected the way English was used by the best writers of his day and appealed to them to conform to the external rules of his grammar book. Dr. Johnson, when he wrote the *Plan of the Dictionary* looked upon what he called the "licentious" English language and found it "copious without order and energetic without rules." He embarked upon *The Dictionary* seeing everywhere "perplexity to be disentangled and confusion to be regulated." A contemporary of Johnson's, an eminent grammarian, also deplored the fact that the best writers of the day departed from what he thought was Standard English. He wrote, "The English language as it is spoken by the politest part of the nation, and as it stands in the writings of our most approved authors, often offends against every part of grammar."

To come nearer home, I heard this summer of one teacher of English who had taken great pains to point out the many grammatical inaccuracies in Winston Churchill's speeches.

Such attitudes ignore the fact that English is a living language. Anyone who insists upon an immutable Standard English is like a man who stands upon one of the great ice-floes which drift across the Polar Seas, digs in his heels, and affirms that because he himself does not travel from that spot the body of ice is not moving and the great Polar Drift does not exist.

In 1755, after eight years of work upon *The Dictionary*, Dr. Johnson revised his aims and methods in that great undertaking; and was great enough to confess that he had changed his mind: "I have indulged expectation which neither reason nor experience can justify...And with justice may the lexicographer be derided who...shall imagine that his dictionary can embalm his

language, and secure it from corruption and decay." Having said this, Johnson then enumerates some of the factors in English life which had brought about this irresistible change and growth in the language: commerce, translations, the arts and sciences and even the existence of class distinctions in society. And in all these multifarious factors one principle alone determined correctness : for "What makes a word obsolete, more than a general agreement to forbear it? And how shall it be continued... when it has once become unfamiliar by disuse and unpleasing by unfamiliarity ?" In other words, the standard at any given period is determined by usage, for, in the words of a writer of 1950, "language does not occupy a position, but travels a road. Today's standards may be tomorrow's errors. The dictionary is not an umpire but a clerk of the election, reporting how most of the people who count are using the language right now."

In spite of his insight into the fact and nature of language-change Dr. Johnson, like most of us, held on to old habits. In *The Dictionary* itself he asserts that *excepting* is an "improper word" and yet cites his examples of its usage from Dryden. He classifies *budge, low* and *clever* as "low words," that is, bordering on slang, yet he draws his examples of their use from Shakespeare, Addison and Pope.

Taking Johnson's *Dictionary* as a landmark we can look backward to Chaucer and forward to our own day and see clearly some ways in which the English language has changed and the direction in which it has drifted in the past six hundred years.

One obvious change is in the spelling of words. The *American College Dictionary* (1947) lists forty-four sounds which are represented by over two hundred and fifty spellings in modern English. At one time the spelling of English words was according to the pronunciation. English pronunciation has already travelled a long way when the "ʃ" (sh) sound covers such spellings as in ocean, machine, special, pshaw, schist, conscience, nauseous, ship, mansion, tissue, mission, and mention ; when the "ju" phonetic is represented by the spelling in feud, queue, few, view, use, cue, suit, yew, yule, adieu, you and beauty; and when the various spellings of the weak syllables in *a*lone, mull*ei*n, dunge*on*, eas*i*ly, parliam*e*nt, gall*o*p, purp*ose*, porp*oise*, curi*ous* and circ*us* can all be represented by the phonetic "ə".

English spelling is difficult for the non-English person, but the difficulty is lightened when in the difficulty the pupil can see something of the romance of words, the romance of words which is the history of the English language as a living language.

Another change which can be seen in such an overall survey is the change which has taken place in the meaning of words. Walt

Whitman has called slang "the poetry of language". Another writer calls it "the pioneering part of language". People who use new words with imagination and courage, or who put old words to new uses, add their quota to language change. By such poetic and experimental use of words the modern word "silly" has travelled a long way from its original meaning of "happy" ; again, "crafty" has taken on a sinister meaning since its original meaning of "skilful", and travelling in the opposite direction up the scale of respectability, Johnson's despised words "fun" and "clever" are now established in the politest circles of Standard English usage. Any English classic of another age than this will provide that evidence of this kind of change and give the more senior pupils an increased power over words with which they are already familiar. Such an exercise is a valuable prelude to the study of poetry, for great poets often use words with their current meaning plus all the overtones and echoes that the word has accumulated in its past history.

A third kind of change is the change in sentence-structure, that is in grammar, between Chaucer's day and ours and even between Johnson's day and ours. An article such as this gives far too short a space to list all the tendencies in modern English which now seems to have settled down into a definite drift and have become Standard English of the twentieth century. A few examples will serve to illustrate the fact that the grammar of English is still undergoing considerable change. In the first place the verb "to be" now takes an object with impunity. "It's me !" "That's him !" are good Standard English of today and only a pedant would change the pronoun. In the second place the interrogative "whom" has almost disappeared from use in this century. "Who did you see ?" "Who are you waiting for ?" are good Standard English in spite of the grammarians. In the third place, even the best people now split their infinitives and especially if doing so avoids ambiguity. Thus as Fowler's *English Usage* has it, "we aim to better equip our students for life," and there's no way of removing the split infinitive without be-fogging the meaning. In the fourth place, one of the most outstanding trends of modern English is the emergence of what some grammarians call the merged verb. In this usage the verb and its associated preposition are used as one functional unit and so the original isolated verb multiplies its meanings. Thus we *look*, we *look at,* we *look out,* we *look out for,* we *look up* (to the sky), we *look up* (word in the dictionary) and we *look up to* (a person).

These four ways are examples of the drift of English grammar since Chaucer's day. Grammar has become "usage", and accepted usage is the good Standard English of any given period.

In order to bridge the gap between modern spoken English and the English of a given classic the teacher must beware of teaching the former as a living process while handling the latter as a dry-as-dust dead language. In most cases the classic of a past age is not written in a strange and difficult language but in a fairly familiar language used differently. Professor H. C. Wyld in his *History of Modern Colloquial English* points out that if we of the present day were transported back to the seventeenth century we would find it very difficult to carry on social intercourse. "We would not know how to greet or take leave of those we met, how to ask a favour, pay a compliment, or send a polite message. ...We could not scold a footman, commend a child, express in appropriate terms admiration for a woman's beauty, or aversion to the opposite quality. We should hesitate every moment how to address the person we were talking to." In other words, if we could meet William Shakespeare, Ben Johnson, or John Milton we would not have to learn a new language but we would have to learn new ways of using English especially in the "small change" of daily life.

The printed word has acted as a brake upon the process of language change in its many aspects. Literature is more conservative than the spoken language and so the printed word lags behind the more venturesome experiments of the market place and the home.

A knowledge of how the English language has changed and grown helps in bridging the gap between modern spoken English and the more literary English of a past age. For the rest, no matter whether some classic is being studied or the spoken language employed, there can be no better touchstone for good English than that given by Chaucer in *The Canterbury Tales*:

> Eek Plato seith, who-so that can him rede
> The words mote be cosin to the dede.

LANGUAGE TEACHING THROUGH GROUP ACTIVITIES

"GROUP WORK" in language teaching can be considered a valuable device. The class can be divided into convenient groups, each group having a leader. The greater the number of groups, the more effective can be the individual attention. Even the most backward in the class can share learning very freely with others because they get more chances to speak, to read or to write. It is very important that the leader is one who can guide and help his brother pupils and bring them up as far as possible to his own

level in all aspects of language learning. To start with it may be possible to split the class only into two or three groups for the purpose. Soon after gaining some experience, we can select a few more leaders and so we can conveniently increase the number of groups to five or six or even more.

This method of teaching English through group activities has been in practice in the Sri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalaya, Coimbatore District, since July 1953. It was introduced for the first time in Form I when the new Madras Government Syllabus was given effect to. During that year sometimes there were two or three groups working on competitive lines. This method was tried for one year only to give additional drill to the point of fluency for the mastery of certain structures through games such as "Walking, Running and Hopping", "Throwing and Catching", "Giving and Getting", "Action Chain Games", etc. It was found out that these games worked marvellously upon the students like sugar-coated pills, the students learning the structures and teaching points unconsciously and in an informal way. The students took to the play of these and similar other games with great joy and enthusiasm.

As this method of teaching through group work was found to give far better results, it was continued in Forms II and III also for the same set of students. The following were a few of the many activities they were engaged in :—

INDOOR GROUP GAMES

1. Word Building and Word Ending.
2. Constructing as many words as possible by reshuffling the letters of the words taken for the purpose such as "Teacher", "Conversation", "Daughter", "Yesterday", etc. It is gratifying to point out that through group effort the pupils constructed as many as 25 other words out of "teacher", 70 out of "conversation", 25 out of "daughter" and 53 out of "yesterday".

3. THE SENTENCE GAME

In this game each boy contributed one sentence in quick succession on a particular topic such as "My Life in the Vidyalaya", "My Classroom," etc.

4. CONVERSATIONS

Very short conversations were arranged both inside and outside the class. The topics that were dwelt upon were "Our Flower Garden", "Buying and Selling of Things", "Comparing the Marks in the Examinations", and similar others.

5. DRAMATICS

A story in the Reader published by the Oxford University Press, entitled "Raman and Mohan" was transformed into a playlet with four scenes through group discussion. The core of the story was kept intact, but the minor details were altered in different ways according to the individual tastes of the different groups and the play enacted. Likewise the lesson entitled "Prize Giving" was dramatised by the different groups on another occasion, each group having several funny competitions. On a third occasion a shopping scene was dramatised after the lesson "An English Shop" was done in the class. Sometimes dramatization of poems too, such as "Going to School" that was heard over the radio, was undertaken by the groups. On all such occasions the language was kept well within the structures taught.

6. GRAMMATICAL EXERCISES

Drill in Degrees of Comparison, Direct and Indirect Speech, Adverb Clauses with "if", "while", etc. were also given through group games.

These examples will be quite enough to show how and what kind of activities can be organised for several groups in language class. Sometimes each group can be left to discuss and chalk out its own programme of activities. On such an occasion the teacher must go round and see how and what kind of activities are selected for the purpose and give guidance if necessary. The programme may include any one or more of the above-mentioned activities. It may also include the following :—

1. Training in proper oral reading.
2. Ear Training Dictation on the portions in which the pupils have no reading difficulty.
3. Questioning and answering on the portions already gone through in the reading class.

When the language class is conducted through group activities on these lines, boys really enjoy greater freedom. Even the shy and the weak take a very active part and contribute to the liveliness of the class. Sometimes when the teacher absents himself for some days, he can train the pupils to carry on group activities and evaluate their own work. So one can rightly call this method of teaching through group activities the "Democratic Way of Teaching" which is sure to give better results provided the teacher is a sincere guide and has faith in his pupils.

We print on this page a list of suggestions sent to Directors of Public Instruction after refresher courses have been held in their States by members of the staff of the British Council in Madras. These were subsequently circulated by Directors.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INCREASING THE EFFICIENCY OF ENGLISH TEACHING IN SOUTH INDIA

BY F. L. BILLOWS

1. Teachers should be encouraged, as far as they are able, to spend the first two or three months of work on the English language in making the simplest and most essential speech patterns familiar to the minds of their pupils through the ear, by speaking and getting their pupils to respond in speech, with reference to the natural situation of the classroom. They should avoid reading or writing for the time being. In the very first stages the simplest possible responses that show comprehension should be accepted, and the full answer that some teachers now insist on should not be required until a later stage when it can be given without strain.

2. If it is found that the shapes of the Latin Alphabet are difficult to learn they may be practised as a separate and at first unrelated handicraft—on the lines of the Marion Richardson Method. Only after the end of the 2 or 3 months' preparatory period of oral work should the speech patterns so learnt be made familiar to the eye by reading or writing being taught.

3. No written tests or examinations should be required before the end of the first year.

4. There should be no translation, as an exercise, during the first three years. Translation should only be permitted briefly and incidentally to give meaning quickly or to test comprehension of what has been dealt with in English. The presentation of the lesson should be exclusively in English at all stages.

5. The attention of teachers should be drawn to the importance of restricting the language they use at any particular stage of their teaching to the vocabulary and structures so far learnt by the particular class, or to what the teacher is then undertaking to teach.

6. Poetry should be introduced to pupils by the teacher reading it aloud fluently and rhythmically. The pupils should not be

expected to see a poem before they hear it. It follows from this that they should be discouraged from preparing a poem before the lesson and also from following it with the eye while the teacher is reading it. In this way the pupil begins with a general—if incomplete—impression of the poem and can concentrate on what he does know rather than on what he does not know in his approach to the full significance of the poem.

Group Work

7. To overcome the difficulties of teaching over-large classes teachers should be encouraged to break up their classes into groups, for practice to the point of fluency of what has been introduced by the teacher orally.

8. Home work should be set which the pupils can work at in pairs or small groups ; for example, the constructing and memorizing of dialogues or short playlets ; the preparing of visual material for classroom demonstration in obedience to instructions in English.

9. Group composition exercises, and even free composition done in groups, should be a regular feature of work on composition. For this type of work the class is split up into groups of 4 or 5 pupils ; each group is required to produce co-operatively an agreed exercise or composition which each member of the group writes out in full ; only one of the copies is handed in for correction. Experiment has shown that a higher standard of writing is achieved in a group composition than is reached by any single member of the group, because the individual members of the group check one another's mistakes. The greatly reduced work for the teacher in correcting only 10 instead of 50 compositions, or composition exercises, makes it possible for him to set more composition work than is otherwise possible. Only through writing a great deal can a pupil reach a high standard in composition.

10. Teachers should be encouraged to help their pupils to dramatize what they are learning, either in the words of their text-book or spontaneously in the form of situations of their own choosing within the vocabulary and range of structures that have been learnt. This may be done in small groups which should then present these dramatizations to the rest of the form or to the whole school.

In conclusion

Inspecting officers and members of the department can do a great deal to help teachers, with their advice and encouragement, to experiment with new methods and to achieve new effective-

ness in their teaching; the more so if they do not insist on too complete a uniformity in teaching, but give importance to spontaneity and enterprise. They should not judge the effectiveness of language teaching on written work alone or on passive comprehension alone, important as these two spheres of work are, but they should give at least as much weight in forming their judgement to the liveliness of the response of pupils to question, command and statement and to their readiness in putting on dramatic sketches, discussions, debates etc., in front of the class, or to their ability to organize and present reports to the class on subjects studied or projects worked out in groups.

IDIOMATIC ENGLISH

A book for foreign students

By

KATHLEEN BOX, M.B.E., B.A. (Oxon)

Pitman. Price. 8s. 6d.

This is a useful little book designed to help the foreign student to avoid some of the mistakes which he most easily falls into. It is written in a chatty style and gives plenty of examples that make the use of idiomatic expressions clear. Help with making sentences and writing letters is given in a sensible way which should help many Indian students to avoid cumbersome phrases and express themselves clearly. There is also good advice on various ways of learning English and suggestions for reading.

F. L. B.

SUNSHINE

(Progressive Children's National Monthly with a world view)

Published for the Sunshine Publishing House, 5556 Shivajinagar, Poona 5

One of the greatest needs for teachers of English in High Schools is for a simply written and attractively got up magazine for young people. This seems to be very well realized by the periodical *Sunshine,* of which the Editor is Mr. G. S. Krishnayya of Poona. The subscription rates are :

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F. L. B.

QUESTION BOX

Question :"I should be grateful if you would comment on the following two uses of the words '*reach*' and '*enter*'.

I. (1) *I reached the station.* I think the verb 'reach' is used in Intransitive Sense. Hence it cannot be turned into Passive Voice.

(2) *The Committee reached the decision.* In this case the verb 'reach' is used in Transitive Sense, so it can be turned into Passive Voice. But I have heard some teachers of English saying '*The station was reached by the train*'. Please let me know whether the above sentence is correct or not.

II. Similarly the verb 'enter' when it is used in Intransitive Sense, cannot be changed into Passive Voice, e.g. '*I enter the class*'. In this case 'enter' is used in Intransitive Sense. But we can change into Passive Voice the sentence '*I entered the marks in the result sheet*'. Please let me know whether my interpretation in case (II) question is correct."

Answer: It seems to me that you are making an unreal distinction in saying that in your first example *"I reached the station"*, reached is being used intransitively. In this, as in many other problems of this kind, the deciding factor is not mechanical grammatical rule, but the sense of the sentence. There is no reason for saying *"The station is reached by the train"*, but in describing a journey and incidents and stages of a journey, one would certainly say *"Trichy was reached at half past six"*. The point seems to me here to be that the attention is primarily directed to Trichy rather than to the people travelling. Similarly, although we should seldom say *"The room was entered by me"*, yet if we are thinking of a locked room, which presents a problem in entering, we should certainly say *"The room was eventually entered by the police through the back window"*. Here again, it depends on what is uppermost in the mind of the speaker as to whether the passive is used or not.

Question: "It is quite true that 'this' is used for the thing which is within our hand's reach, and 'that' is used for the thing which is beyond our hand's reach. Moreover, while saying 'This is a book', or 'That is a pencil', we *actually point at* the thing by our hand. What I mean is the thing should be present and it should be pointed at. In the following example the use of 'this' is false but 'the' should be used instead.

'The traveller saw a bag of pearls in the desert and he took *this* bag at once', (Incorrect). In my opinion it is more correct to say : 'The traveller............and he took *the* bag at once'. Nowadays we frequently come across the incorrect use of 'this'. Hence the query. Please throw light on it."

Answer : I always teach that "the" is a weak form of adjectival "this" and "that", used when neither "this" nor "that" is particularly called for. "It" is, of course, the weak form of "this" and "that" when they are pronouns. The rule I give is that the weaker form should always be used if nothing is added to the effectiveness of the sentence by using the strong form. This is true of the whole of the language: we never use a particular tense such as the Continuous Past Tense if the Simple Past will do. In your two sentences "this" would be ruled out because there is no need to fix the attention on one bag of pearls rather than another. If the sentence were "The traveller found several bags of pearls in the desert; he was sceptical of the genuineness of the pearls in all but one; this bag he took at once", the word "the" would be less effective. Or the sentence might be re-written : "The traveller saw a bag of pearls in the desert, and he took it at once", or the sentence might be: "The traveller saw several bags in the desert, one of them containing pearls; this he took at once".

Question : "Will you kindly explain the uses of the word 'It'?"

Answer : I presume you are referring to the use of "It" in its use as an impersonal subject, not in its normal use as a pronoun. As we are used to the normal pattern of a sentence having a subject and a verb, we have formed the habit of putting the word "it" before a verb if it has no subject or no easily identified subject. For example, we say: "It is raining", or "It rains a lot in October." It would seem queer to us to say : "The rain is raining", though Shakespeare wrote "The rain it raineth every day", and in Turkish, a language in which the pronoun is considered to be contained in the verb and therefore only used for emphasis, they say: "Yagmur yagiyor", the rain is raining. In the same way we say : "When I stick a pin into my leg it hurts", in which "it" can be thought of as acting as a focus and representing the situation of sticking a pin into one's leg. Or "it" can be shifted to the front of the sentence to bring the focus into greater prominence as in : "It hurts when I stick a pin into my leg." This is the use of "it" as a means of directing attention on, or spot-lighting a particular word, as can be done in the following sentence, to obtain varying shades of emphasis. "I saw John as I was coming out of the Post Office last night."

It was I who saw John, as I was coming out of the Post Office last night.

It was John that I saw as I was coming out of the Post Office last night.
It was as I was coming out of the Post Office last night that I saw John.
It was the Post Office that I was coming out of last night when I saw John, etc.

Question: "When and how should 'reading' and 'writing' be introduced in the first year of English? Kindly suggest some books on the teaching of reading and writing."

Answer : Reading and writing should be introduced after three or four months' oral work, though writing may be begun earlier as a craft unrelated to what is being taught orally, on the lines of Marion Richardson's *Writing and Writing Patterns,* which can be obtained from Orient Longmans. There is no space here to give detailed information about how to teach reading except to state that nothing should be read in the first years that has not been made thoroughly familiar to the ear, and there should be a great deal of writing on and reading from the blackboard, as well as from printed books. The Beacon Way is a good course in reading widely used in England for English children.

Question : "How can a teacher make best use of the verb given in Hornby?"

Answer : Hornby's first book *Composition Exercises in Elementary English,* published by Macmillans, gives examples of useful ways of exercising the verb patterns. Manipulative exercises of this type should always be used until the correct patterns have become instinctive. For example, turning a set of positive sentences into the negative or interrogative, or changing an adverb of past time to one of present time or an adverb of frequency, to necessitate a change of tense, in this way "He came to school on his bicycle, yesterday." Take out "yesterday" and substitute (1) "Usually", and (2) "Today" ; as follows :—

1. He usually comes to school on his bicycle.
2. He has come to school on his bicycle today.

F. L. B.

When a Justice makes a mistake,
it becomes the law of the land.

When a Doctor makes a mistake,
it becomes his diagnosis.

When an Architect makes a mistake,
it becomes his design.

But
When a Printer makes a mistake,
GOOD NIGHT

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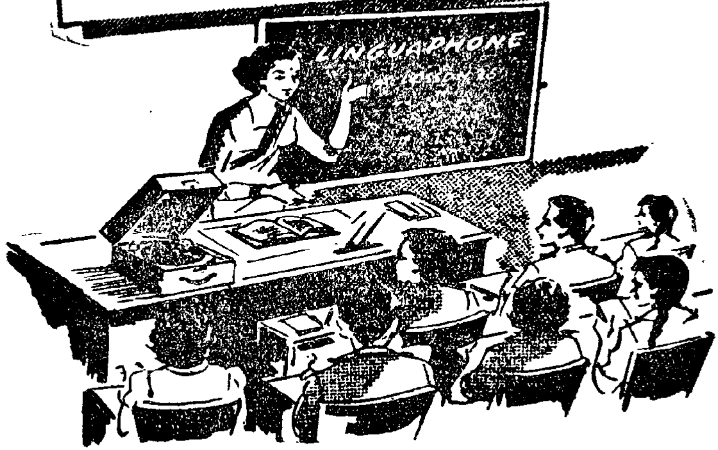
first you listen



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